Vocabulary for Engineering A คำศัพท์ กาษาอังกฤษ วิศวกรรมโยธา



Preface

Vocabularies for Engineering books for Civil Engineering!

English words that are used to name objects or techniques of use. Words spoken both directly and these theoretical practices will be arranged in this book. By the structure of the content those words will be quoted with an explanation appended. Some items may be used at the same time and complement each other as some words. The author and editor tried to follow the usage and commonly known things in lessons and daily life to get more than 300 words that exist in these subjects mentioned above and sincerely hope that the book will be suitable for people who want to be an engineer in the future and learn these words to prepare well for the future.

Sample

Here are some English words that are commonly used in the fields of civil engineering, electrical engineering, chemical engineering, telecommunications engineering, and mechanical engineering:

Civil Engineering:

- 1. Foundation
- 2. Structure
- 3. Reinforcement

- 4. Concrete
- 5. Steel
- 6. Bridge
- 7. Roadway
- 8. Dam
- 9. Tunnel
- 10. Surveying
- 11. Geotechnical
- 12. Environmental
- 13. Hydraulic
- 14. Geometric
- 15. Transportation
- 16. Earthworks
- 17. Retaining wall
- 18. Construction
- 19. Pile foundation
- 20. Structural analysis

These words can be used as object names or to describe various techniques and concepts used in the respective fields. The book aims to provide explanations and examples for each word mentioned above, helping aspiring engineers understand and prepare for their future careers.

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- 41. Shoring.
- 42. Bracing
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- 47. Soil stabilization

- 48. Geosynthetics
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- 50. Geogrids

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- 51. Gabion
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- 54. Ductility
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- 57. Base isolation
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- 60. Cracking
- 61. Deflection
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- 65. Statics
- 66. Strength of materials
- 67. Structural steelwork
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- 69. Welded connections
- 70. Design code

- 71. Load combination
- 72. Load factor
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- 74. Allowable stress
- 75. Factor of safety
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- 77. Wind-induced vibration
- 78. Wind-resistant design
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- 80. Durability
- 81. Protective coatings
- 82. Water pollution
- 83. Waste management
- 84. Stormwater management
- 85. Sanitary engineering
- 86. Water supply system
- 87. Wastewater treatment
- 88. Water treatment plant
- 89. Pump station
- 90. Drainage system
- 91. Sewerage system
- 92. Manhole
- 93. Culvert
- 94. Storm sewer
- 95. Catch basin

- 96. Infiltration
- 97. Percolation
- 98. Hydrology
- 99. Hydrologic cycle
- 100. Runoff

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- 101. Irrigation system
- 102. Flood control
- 103. Detention basin
- 104. Retention Pond
- 105. Dams
- 106. Reservoirs
- 107. Slope protection
- 108. Erosion control
- 109. Sediment control
- 110. Revetment
- 111. Riprap
- 112. Geosynthetic clay liner
- 113. Environmental impact assessment
- 114. Noise pollution
- 115. Air pollution
- 116. Traffic engineering
- 117. Geometric design
- 118. Pavement design

- 119. Traffic control
- 120. Road signs
- 121. Signalization
- 122. Intersection design
- 123. Highway alignment
- 124. Transportation planning
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- 126. Field investigations
- 127. Topographic survey
- 128. Construction survey
- 129. Global positioning system (GPS)
- 130. Total station
- 131. Leveling
- 132. Contour lines
- 133. Geodetic surveying
- 134. Precise leveling
- 135. Land surveying
- 136. Boundary survey
- 137. Cadastral survey
- 138. Right-of-way
- 140. Grading design
- 141. Earthwork calculations
- 142. Computer-aided design (CAD)
- 143. Laser scanning
- 144. Point cloud data

- 145. BIM (Building Information Modeling)
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- 147. Estimation
- 148. Cost analysis
- 149. Value engineering
- 150. Project management
- 151. Construction planning
- 152. Scheduling
- 153. Gantt chart
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- 288. Reaction
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- 290. Moment of inertia
- 291. Neutral axis
- 292. Distribution factor
- 293. Web
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- 299. Slenderness ratio
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- 301. Modulus of elasticity
- 302. Poisson's ratio
- 303. Stress-strain curve
- 304. Plastic limit
- 305. Ultimate limit state
- 306. Serviceability limit state
- 307. Working stress design
- 308. Load factor design
- 309. Safety factor
- 310. No-damage criterion
- 311. Creep effect
- 312. Temperature effect
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- 314. Fire-retardant material
- 315. Fireproofing
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- 317. Seismic response
- 318. Seismic coefficient
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- 321. Plastic hinge

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- 341. Soil permeability
- 342. Field density
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Introductions

What is civil engineering?

Civil Engineering is a branch of engineering that deals with the design, construction, and maintenance of the physical naturally built environment. lt focuses and infrastructure development, including buildings, bridges, roads, dams, airports, water supply systems, sewage systems, and much more. Civil engineers use scientific principles and mathematical calculations to plan, design, and oversee construction projects while taking into consideration factors such as safety, sustainability, and functionality. They also address issues of environmental impact, transportation, and geotechnical engineering. Civil engineering plays a vital role in shaping society and improving quality of life by creating and maintaining essential infrastructure systems.

Let's learn vocabulary in the civil engineering category.

350 vocabularies specific to civil engineering

1. Structural

Structural engineering in civil engineering focuses on the design and analysis of structures that are capable of withstanding loads and forces, ensuring their safety, stability, and functionality. It involves the planning, design, construction, and maintenance of various structures such as buildings, bridges, towers, dams, tunnels, and other infrastructure. Structural engineers consider factors such as the behavior of materials, structural systems, forces acting on the structure, and the effects of environmental conditions and natural disasters. They use mathematical models, computer-aided design software, and engineering principles to ensure that structures are structurally sound, functional, and meet all code and safety requirements.

2. Foundation

In civil engineering, a foundation refers to the structural element that supports and transfers the loads from a structure, such as a building or a bridge, to the underlying soil or rock. It is the lowest part of a structure and acts as a base that distributes the weight and forces from the superstructure to the ground.

The primary function of a foundation is to provide stability, ensuring that the structure does not settle, sink, or collapse under the applied loads. It also helps to prevent the structure from being damaged by external factors like soil movement, earthquakes, or water infiltration.

Foundations can be classified into two main types: shallow foundations and deep foundations. Shallow foundations distribute the loads primarily through bearing capacity of the soil near the ground surface, whereas deep foundations transfer the loads to more competent soil or rock layers located deeper below the surface.

Different types of foundations are used depending on various factors such as soil conditions, type of structure, loads, and local codes and regulations. Some common types of foundations include spread footings, mat foundations, pile foundations, and caisson foundations. Proper design, construction, and maintenance of the foundation are crucial for the overall

performance and structural integrity of any civil engineering structure.

3. Reinforcement

In civil engineering, reinforcement refers to the process of adding materials, typically steel bars or mesh, within a structural element to enhance its strength and durability. Reinforcement is commonly used in concrete structures to increase their resistance to tensile forces, which concrete alone is not able to withstand effectively. Reinforcing steel, also known as rebar, is typically placed within the concrete in the form of bars or mesh. The rebar adds tensile strength to the structure, allowing it to resist bending, cracking, and other deformations that may occur due to applied loads or environmental factors like temperature changes or shrinkage. By reinforcing the concrete, the overall strength and stability of the structure are improved.

The design of reinforced concrete structures involves determining the appropriate amount, size, and layout of reinforcement based on the anticipated loads, environmental conditions, and design requirements. Structural engineers use various codes and guidelines to determine reinforcement requirements and ensure the safety and performance of the structure.

Reinforcement can also be used in other construction materials such as masonry, timber, and composites to enhance their strength and resistance to external forces. Overall, the appropriate use of reinforcement in civil engineering plays a crucial role in ensuring the structural integrity and longevity of various types of construction projects.

4. Concrete

In civil engineering, concrete refers to a composite material composed of cement, aggregates (such as sand and gravel), and water. It is one of the most commonly used construction materials due to its strength, durability, versatility, and cost-effectiveness.

Concrete is formed by combining the cement (a binding material that reacts chemically with water), aggregates (provide volume and stability to the concrete), and water in specific proportions. The mixture is then typically poured into molds or formwork, where it hardens, solidifies, and gains strength over time through a process called hydration.

Concrete possesses excellent compressive strength, making it suitable for supporting heavy loads. It is also fire-resistant, relatively low-maintenance, and has good resistance to natural elements like weather, water, and chemicals. Concrete can be

shaped into various forms and sizes, allowing for flexibility in design and construction.

Civil engineers extensively use concrete in the construction of structures such as buildings, roads, bridges, dams, tunnels, and other infrastructure projects. Different types of concrete mixes and additives can be used to achieve specific properties, such as high-strength concrete, self-compacting concrete, or fiber-reinforced concrete, depending on the project's requirements.

Proper concrete design, construction, and curing practices are essential to ensure its durability and performance. Quality control measures, such as testing the concrete's strength and composition, are undertaken to meet design specifications and safety standards.

5. Steel

In civil engineering, steel refers to a versatile and widely used construction material that is primarily composed of iron and carbon. Steel is known for its high strength, ductility, and durability, making it an ideal choice for various structural applications in the civil engineering field.

Steel has a variety of properties that make it suitable for use in construction. It has high tensile strength, which means it can resist high forces without undergoing significant deformation or failure.

Steel is also relatively lightweight compared to other construction materials, making it easier to handle and transport. Additionally, steel can be fabricated into different shapes and sizes, allowing for versatile design possibilities.

In civil engineering, steel is commonly used in the construction of buildings, bridges, towers, and other infrastructure projects. It is used in the form of structural beams, columns, and trusses to provide structural support and stability to these structures. Steel reinforcement bars (rebar) are also frequently embedded in concrete to increase its tensile strength and resistance to cracking.

Aside from its structural applications, steel is utilized in civil engineering for various other purposes. It can be used as cladding or roofing material due to its aesthetic appeal and weather resistance. Steel pipes are often employed for the transportation of fluids, such as water or gas, in infrastructure networks.

The design and use of steel in civil engineering require adherence to applicable codes, regulations, and safety standards to ensure the durability and safety of the structures. Regular inspections and maintenance practices are essential to preserve the integrity of steel structures over their lifespan.

6. Masonry

In civil engineering, masonry refers to a construction technique that involves building structures using individual units, such as bricks, stones, or concrete blocks, that are bound together with mortar. Masonry is one of the oldest and most traditional methods of construction, offering strength, durability, and aesthetic appeal. Masonry units, typically made of materials like clay, concrete, or natural stones, are laid in a specific pattern and bonded together using mortar, which is a mixture of cement, sand, and water. The mortar acts as an adhesive, creating a solid and cohesive structure.

Masonry construction can be categorized into two main types: load-bearing and non-load-bearing. Load-bearing masonry refers to walls or structures that carry vertical loads from the superstructure and transfer them to the foundation. Non-load-bearing masonry, on the other hand, does not carry any significant vertical loads and is primarily used for partition walls or decorative purposes.

Masonry offers several advantages in civil engineering. It provides excellent fire resistance, durability, and resistance to weather and natural forces. Masonry structures have good thermal insulation properties and can provide sound insulation as well. Additionally, masonry offers versatile design possibilities, allowing for attractive architectural options.

Masonry is commonly used in the construction of buildings, retaining walls, facades, and other structures. Skilled masons are crucial in ensuring proper construction techniques, such as laying the units level and plumb, and achieving strong mortar bonds. The design and construction of masonry structures need to follow the relevant building codes and standards to ensure safety and structural integrity.

7. Beam

In civil engineering, a beam refers to a structural element that is designed to resist applied loads, primarily by bending. Beams are horizontal or inclined structural members that transfer loads perpendicular to their longitudinal axis to support columns or walls. They play a vital role in distributing the weight and loads of a structure to its supports, ensuring stability and structural integrity.

Beams are commonly used in various construction projects, such as buildings, bridges, and aircraft structures. They provide support and resistance to the forces acting on the structure, including dead loads (the weight of the structure itself), live loads (people, furniture, equipment), and environmental loads (wind, snow, seismic activity).

The design of beams involves considering factors such as the type

and magnitude of the loads, span length, material properties, and structural requirements. The most commonly used materials for beams in civil engineering are steel, reinforced concrete, and timber, each offering different advantages and limitations based on the project specifications.

Beam types can vary based on their shape and cross-sectional profile. Some common shapes include rectangular beams, I-beams, T-beams, and circular beams. The appropriate choice of beam shape depends on factors such as loading conditions, available space, and aesthetic requirements.

Analysis and design of beams utilize principles of structural mechanics, such as calculating bending moments, shear forces, and deflections. Computer-aided design (CAD) software and engineering calculations are commonly employed in the design process to determine the required dimensions, reinforcement, and other parameters.

By selecting the appropriate materials and designing beams effectively, civil engineers can ensure the safety, performance, and longevity of various structures.

8. Column

In civil engineering, a column refers to a vertical structural element

that primarily supports compressive loads and transfers them to the foundation. Columns are typically designed to be slender, load-bearing members that provide stability and structural integrity to a structure.

Columns are commonly found in various construction projects, such as buildings, bridges, and other infrastructure. They are often used in combination with beams and other structural elements to form the framework of a structure.

The design of columns involves considering factors such as the applied loads, the specific material properties being used (such as concrete, steel, or timber), and the desired architectural and structural requirements. Columns are designed to resist compressive forces, which are typically transferred to them through vertical loads from beams, slabs, or other elements in the structure.

Columns come in different shapes and sizes, including square, rectangular, circular, or even more complex forms. The choice of column shape depends on several factors such as architectural preferences, structural stability, load-carrying capacity, and space constraints.

The analysis and design of columns involve considerations such as calculating the maximum compressive loads, determining the

required dimensions, reinforcement requirements, and detailing to ensure adequate resistance against buckling, lateral loads, and other forces.

Proper construction and maintenance of columns are crucial for the overall performance and safety of a structure. The positioning, alignment, and connections of columns need to be precise, and periodic inspections are needed to identify any signs of damage, such as cracking or deterioration, which could compromise their load-carrying capacity.

In summary, columns in civil engineering provide crucial support and stability to structures, bearing compressive loads and transferring them to the foundation. They contribute to the overall structural integrity and safety of the construction project.

9. Truss

In civil engineering, a truss refers to a structural framework made of straight members connected at their ends to form a series of triangular units. Trusses are designed to efficiently transfer loads and provide support for bridges, roofs, towers, and other structures.

Trusses are primarily used in scenarios where long spans or heavy loads need to be supported. By utilizing the inherent strength and

stability of triangles, trusses can effectively distribute loads across the entire structure. The triangular configuration resists both tension and compression forces, making trusses highly efficient and reliable.

The individual members of a truss can be made of various materials, such as steel, timber, or aluminum, depending on the design requirements and project specifications. The connections between the members can be bolts, welds, or pins.

There are different types of trusses used in civil engineering, including Pratt trusses, Howe trusses, Warren trusses, and others. Each type has a specific configuration of members and offers different advantages in terms of stability, weight distribution, and cost-effectiveness. The choice of truss type depends on factors such as the desired span, load requirements, aesthetic considerations, and available materials.

The design and analysis of trusses involve calculating forces, ensuring proper member sizing, and determining appropriate connections to ensure structural integrity. Modern computeraided design software and analytical techniques are commonly used in truss design to optimize performance, efficiency, and safety.

Trusses have been extensively used in various structures, such as bridges and roofs, due to their ability to span large distances while efficiently distributing loads. Proper construction and maintenance practices are essential to ensure the longevity and safety of truss structures. Regular inspections and repairs, as well as addressing any signs of deterioration or damage, are crucial to preserving the structural integrity of trusses.

10. Retaining wall

In civil engineering, a retaining wall refers to a structure that is specifically designed to retain and support soil or other materials at different levels and prevent lateral movement or erosion. Retaining walls are typically constructed to create level areas or to prevent soil movement that could threaten the stability of a structure or slope.

Retaining walls are commonly used in various civil engineering projects, such as highways, railways, residential properties, and landscaping. They play a crucial role in stabilizing slopes, preventing erosion, and creating usable land or structures in areas with significant grade changes.

Retaining walls can be constructed using a variety of materials, including concrete, stone, brick, timber, or various types of segmented blocks. The choice of material depends on factors such

as the desired aesthetics, site conditions, project requirements, and budget. The design of a retaining wall involves considering factors such as the height of the wall, soil characteristics, water pressure, and applicable building codes or regulations.

Different types of retaining walls are used in civil engineering, including gravity walls, cantilever walls, anchored walls, and reinforced soil walls. Each type has its own design principles and methods of resisting the lateral forces exerted by the retained soil.

The construction of a retaining wall involves excavation, leveling the foundation, placing the appropriate materials, and ensuring proper drainage behind the wall to alleviate water pressure. Adherence to proper construction techniques, such as adequate compaction, correct reinforcement placement (if applicable), and appropriate backfill material, is crucial for the stability and performance of the retaining wall.

Regular inspection and maintenance of retaining walls are essential to identify and address any signs of damage, such as cracks, bulges, or erosion, which could compromise the integrity of the structure. Proper care and maintenance ensure the long-term stability and effectiveness of retaining walls in civil engineering projects.

11. Reinforced concrete

In civil engineering, reinforced concrete refers to a composite material made of concrete and reinforcement steel bars or mesh. It is a commonly used construction material that combines the high compressive strength of concrete with the tensile strength of steel to create a durable and versatile structural material.

Reinforced concrete is formed by pouring concrete around steel reinforcement to create a composite material. The steel reinforcement, commonly known as rebar, is embedded within the concrete to enhance its tensile strength and resistance to cracking. The combination of concrete and steel forms a strong and stable material that can withstand a variety of applied loads.

The process of designing and constructing reinforced concrete structures involves several steps. Firstly, the structural engineer determines the type, size, and layout of the steel reinforcement based on the desired strength, load requirements, and design considerations. This is followed by placing the reinforcement in the desired locations and pouring the concrete around it. Proper compaction and curing of the concrete are crucial to achieve the desired strength and durability.

Reinforced concrete is widely used in civil engineering for various applications, including buildings, bridges, dams, tunnels, and foundations. It offers numerous advantages such as high

durability, resistance to fire and weathering, and versatility in design. Reinforced concrete structures can be designed to withstand heavy loads, seismic activity, and other external forces.

To ensure the safety and performance of reinforced concrete structures, engineers follow building codes and standards that dictate design principles, required reinforcement ratios, and quality control measures. Regular inspections and maintenance practices are recommended to identify and repair any signs of deterioration or damage to maintain the structural integrity of reinforced concrete elements.

Overall, reinforced concrete is a crucial construction material in civil engineering that combines the compressive strength of concrete with the tensile strength of steel, resulting in a versatile and durable material suitable for a wide range of construction applications.

12. Prestressed concrete

In civil engineering, prestressed concrete refers to a type of concrete in which internal stresses are intentionally introduced before it is subjected to external loads. These pre-applied internal stresses, created using high-strength steel tendons or bars, help to counteract the tensile forces that the concrete would otherwise experience under service loads.

The purpose of prestressing concrete is to improve its overall strength and performance, particularly in resisting tensile forces. By applying compressive stresses to the concrete, prestressed concrete can better withstand bending, deflection, and cracking. This allows for the design of lighter, more slender structural elements with longer spans and higher load-carrying capacity.

The process of prestressing involves tensioning the steel tendons or bars, typically using hydraulic jacks, before the concrete is cast. The tensioned tendons are then anchored to prevent them from losing their prestress force when the concrete sets and hardens. Once the concrete has reached its desired strength, the tendon force is transferred to the concrete, resulting in compressive stresses within it.

There are two main types of prestressing used in civil engineering: pre-tensioning and post-tensioning. In pre-tensioning, the steel tendons or bars are tensioned before the concrete is poured and hardened. They are then anchored to the formwork, and the concrete is cast around them. In post-tensioning, the tendons or bars are tensioned after the concrete has hardened. Ducts or sheaths are embedded in the concrete during casting, and the tendons are then threaded through these ducts. Once tensioned, the tendons are anchored to the structure.

Prestressed concrete finds extensive use in a variety of civil engineering applications, including bridges, parking structures, high-rise buildings, and offshore structures. The benefits of prestressed concrete include higher load-carrying capacity, reduced material usage, longer spans, improved durability, and greater resistance to cracking.

The design and construction of prestressed concrete structures require specialized engineering knowledge and adhering to specific design principles and construction techniques. Compliance with relevant codes and standards is necessary to ensure the safety and performance of prestressed concrete elements. Regular inspections and maintenance are also essential to monitor the condition and integrity of prestressed concrete structures over time.

13. Shear stress

In civil engineering, shear stress refers to the force or stress that acts parallel to a surface, causing one layer of a material to slide or deform relative to another layer adjacent to it. It is a measure of the internal resistance of a material to shear forces.

When a load is applied perpendicular to a surface, it generates normal or compressive stress. However, when the load acts parallel to the surface, shear stress is generated. Shear stress is calculated by dividing the force applied parallel to the surface by the area over which the force is distributed.

Shear stress is an important consideration in structural design, particularly for elements like beams, slabs, and joints. It influences the behavior and stability of these structural elements under applied loads.

In civil engineering, shear stress is typically examined in relation to shear forces and shear strength. Shear forces result from external loads and are perpendicular to the span or length of a structural element. Shear stress is calculated by dividing the shear force acting on the cross-sectional area of the element.

The determination of shear stress is crucial for ensuring the structural integrity and safety of various civil engineering structures. Excessive shear stress can cause failure or deformation in structural elements, leading to potential collapse or damage. Design codes and engineering guidelines specify maximum allowable shear stresses for different structural components. Engineers analyze and design structural elements to ensure that the shear stress remains within the acceptable range for the material being used.

To increase the shear strength of a structural element, reinforcement techniques such as adding stirrups or shear reinforcement bars are often employed. These reinforcements enhance the ability of a structural member to resist shear forces and distribute the load effectively.

Understanding and accurately calculating shear stress is therefore essential in civil engineering to ensure the structural stability and safety of buildings, bridges, and other infrastructure elements. It enables engineers to optimize designs and select appropriate materials and construction techniques to resist shear forces effectively.

14. Tensile stress

In civil engineering, tensile stress refers to the force or stress that acts perpendicular to a surface, trying to stretch or elongate the material. It is a measure of the internal resistance of a material to tensile forces.

When a load is applied parallel to a surface, it generates shear stress. However, when the load acts perpendicular to the surface, tensile stress is generated. Tensile stress is calculated by dividing the force applied perpendicular to the cross-sectional area of the material.

Tensile stress is an important consideration in structural design, particularly for elements that are subjected to tensile forces, such as beams, columns, and cables. It influences the behavior and strength of these structural elements under applied loads.

In civil engineering, tensile stress is typically examined in relation to tensile strength. Tensile strength refers to the maximum amount of tensile stress that a material can withstand without fracture or failure. It is an essential mechanical property used in the design of structural elements and materials selection.

Tensile stress and tensile strength are critical parameters to consider when designing structures that experience tension, such as suspension bridges, crane cables, or high-rise buildings. The determination of the appropriate tensile strength helps engineers ensure that the structure can safely withstand the applied tensile forces.

Reinforcing materials, such as steel bars or tendons, are often used in civil engineering to increase the tensile strength of structural elements. This reinforcement enhances the ability of a material to resist tensile forces and prevent failure.

Design codes and engineering guidelines specify the required tensile strength for various structural components based on the anticipated loads and safety requirements. Engineers analyze and design structural elements to ensure that the tensile stress remains within the acceptable range for the material used.

Understanding and accurately calculating tensile stress is essential in civil engineering to ensure the structural integrity and safety of buildings, bridges, and other infrastructure elements. It enables engineers to select appropriate materials and design methods to resist tensile forces effectively and prevent structural failure.

15. Compression stress

In civil engineering, compression stress refers to the force or stress that acts perpendicular to a surface, attempting to compress or shorten the material. It is a measure of the internal resistance of a material to compressive forces.

When a load is applied parallel to a surface, it generates shear stress. However, when the load acts perpendicular to the surface, compression stress is generated. Compression stress is calculated by dividing the force applied perpendicular to the cross-sectional area of the material.

Compression stress is an important consideration in structural design, particularly for elements that are subjected to compressive forces, such as columns, pillars, and walls. It influences the

behavior and strength of these structural elements under applied loads.

In civil engineering, compression stress is typically examined in relation to compressive strength. Compressive strength refers to the maximum amount of compressive stress that a material can withstand before fracturing or failing. It is an essential mechanical property used in the design of structural elements and material selection.

Compression stress and compressive strength are critical parameters to consider when designing structures that experience compression, such as building columns, foundation piles, or retaining walls. Ensuring that the material and design have sufficient compressive strength is crucial for the structural stability and safety of these elements.

Many construction materials, such as concrete or masonry, have relatively high compressive strength but lower tensile strength. Therefore, structural designs often incorporate reinforcing elements, such as steel bars or mesh, to enhance the compressive strength of these materials.

Design codes and engineering guidelines specify the required compressive strength for various structural components based on the anticipated loads and safety requirements. Engineers analyze and design structural elements to ensure that the compressive stress remains within acceptable limits for the material used.

Understanding and accurately calculating compression stress is important in civil engineering to ensure the structural integrity and safety of buildings, bridges, and other infrastructure elements. It enables engineers to select appropriate materials and design approaches to resist compressive forces effectively and prevent structural failure.

16. Moment

In civil engineering, a moment refers to the turning effect or rotational force applied to a structural element, typically a beam or column. Moments are calculated based on the magnitude of the force applied to the element and the distance from the point of application to the point of rotation.

When a load is applied to a beam or column, it creates a bending moment, which causes the structure to deform or bend. The bending moment is the product of the applied force and the distance from the point of force application to the point of rotation. It is a measure of how much the structural element is being bent or twisted.

Moments play a crucial role in the analysis and design of structural elements in civil engineering. They are essential for determining the stresses, deflections, and overall behavior of beams, columns, and other structural members.

By calculating the moments in a structure, engineers can ensure that the components can withstand the applied loads without excessive deflection or failure. Moments also help in determining suitable sizes and reinforcement requirements for structural elements.

Understanding the distribution of moments throughout a structure is critical for designing efficient and safe structures. It allows engineers to optimize the dimensions and geometry of the structural members to minimize material usage while maintaining structural integrity.

Structural analysis techniques, such as moment distribution method or finite element analysis (FEA), are employed to determine the moments within a structure. These methods help in understanding the complex behavior of structures under varying loads and boundary conditions.

By accounting for moments, engineers can design structures that can withstand the expected loads and maintain stability and safety. Proper consideration of moments is crucial for the design of buildings, bridges, tunnels, and other civil engineering projects.

17. Load-bearing capacity

In civil engineering, load-bearing capacity refers to the maximum amount of load or force that a structure or structural element can safely support without experiencing failure or excessive deformation. It is a crucial factor in the design and analysis of buildings, bridges, foundations, and other civil engineering structures.

The load-bearing capacity is determined through various calculations, tests, and simulations to ensure that the structure can withstand the loads it will be subjected to during its service life. These loads may include dead loads (weight of the structure itself), live loads (occupant or equipment loads), environmental loads (such as wind or seismic forces), and other specified loads.

The load-bearing capacity depends on multiple factors, including the structural material used, the dimensions and design of the structural elements, and the type of load applied. Different materials, such as concrete, steel, timber, or masonry, have different load-bearing capacities and behavior under different types of loads.

Structural engineers analyze and design structures to ensure that the applied loads are distributed safely and efficiently across the structural elements, and that they remain within the load-bearing capacity limits. They consider factors such as the strength properties of the materials, the structural arrangement, and the structural connections to meet safety regulations and design codes.

The load-bearing capacity of a structure is essential for ensuring its structural integrity, safety, and long-term performance. It is crucial to avoid structural failure, excessive deflection, or damage that could compromise the safety of the structure and its occupants.

During the construction and maintenance of structures, it is important to regularly inspect and monitor the load-bearing capacity, particularly in aging or heavily-used structures, to identify any signs of damage, deterioration, or changes in the capacity. Periodic inspections and assessments help ensure that structures continue to safely bear the anticipated loads over their lifespan.

Overall, load-bearing capacity plays a vital role in civil engineering as it determines the safety and effectiveness of structures in supporting the applied loads. Engineers carefully consider load-

bearing capacity during the design, construction, and maintenance phases to create and maintain durable and secure structures.

18. Dead load

In civil engineering, dead load refers to the permanent or constant weight of the structural elements and materials that make up a building or structure. It represents the self-weight of the structure itself, as well as the weight of any fixtures, finishes, or equipment that are permanently attached or incorporated into the structure.

Dead load is an essential consideration in the design and analysis of structures, as it contributes to the overall load that the structure must support. Examples of dead loads include the weight of the concrete slabs, beams, columns, walls, roofing materials, partitions, and any fixed equipment or furnishings.

The determination of dead loads involves calculating the weight of each individual component of the structure and summing them together. This is typically based on the known or estimated densities of the materials and the dimensions or areas of the components.

Dead load is considered a permanent load and does not vary over time, unlike live loads which are temporary or moving loads. The presence of dead load affects various aspects of structural design, including the sizing of structural elements, selection of construction materials, and the calculation of structural forces and deflections.

Structural engineers use design codes and standards to determine the appropriate values for dead loads, considering factors such as the anticipated use and occupancy of the structure. These codes prescribe minimum requirements for dead loads and ensure that the structural elements are adequately designed to support the permanent weight.

The accurate calculation and consideration of dead loads are crucial for ensuring the safety and integrity of buildings and structures. Overestimating or underestimating the dead loads could result in inadequate structural capacity or unnecessary material usage.

During construction and maintenance, it's important to periodically review and update the dead load calculations to account for any modifications or additions to the structure. This helps ensure that the structure continues to safely carry the expected dead loads over its lifespan.

In summary, dead load in civil engineering refers to the permanent weight of the structural components and materials that constitute a building or structure. It is an essential consideration in structural design and plays a significant role in determining the loading capacity and overall stability of the structure.

19. Live load

In civil engineering, live load refers to the temporary or variable loads that a structure may experience due to the presence of people, furniture, equipment, vehicles, or any other movable or transient loads. Live loads are also known as imposed loads or occupancy loads.

Live loads are important to consider in the design and analysis of structures, as they represent the loads that a structure may experience during its normal use or operation. Examples of live loads include the weight of people, the weight of furniture or equipment, the weight of vehicles on a bridge, or the dynamic forces caused by moving loads such as wind or seismic forces.

The determination of live loads requires an understanding of the occupancy, use, and function of the structure. Design codes and standards typically provide guidelines or prescribed values for live loads based on the anticipated occupancy and activity of the structure. For example, different live load values may be specified for residential buildings, commercial buildings, bridges, or stadiums.

Live loads are considered to be transient, as they vary in magnitude and location over time. They are typically specified as uniformly distributed loads or concentrated loads, depending on the expected loading conditions. Load factors may also be applied to live loads to account for uncertainty or variability in the actual loads that may be experienced.

Structural engineers analyze and design structures to ensure they can safely carry the expected live loads without exceeding their load-bearing capacities. This involves calculating the internal forces and stresses induced by the live loads and verifying that the structural elements can withstand these forces.

Live loads are typically used in combination with other loads, such as dead loads (permanent weight of the structure) and environmental loads (wind, snow, seismic forces), to determine the overall design loads on a structure. The design process involves considering load combinations that account for the simultaneous presence of multiple loads.

During construction and occupancy, it is important to periodically review and update the estimated live loads to account for any modifications or changes in the usage or occupancy of the structure. This ensures that the structure remains safe and can handle the anticipated live loads over its lifespan.

In summary, live load in civil engineering refers to the temporary or variable loads that a structure experiences due to occupancy or usage. It is an important consideration in structural design as it represents the loads that a structure may encounter during normal operation. Proper consideration and analysis of live loads help ensure the safety and functionality of buildings, bridges, and other structures.

20. Wind load

In civil engineering, wind load refers to the force or pressure exerted by the wind on a structure or its components. It is an important consideration in the design, analysis, and construction of buildings, bridges, and other structures that are exposed to wind.

Wind load is influenced by various factors such as wind speed, direction, turbulence, and the shape and orientation of the structure. The magnitude of wind load can vary depending on the location, terrain, and surrounding structures.

Structural engineers use various methods to calculate wind load, including empirical methods, wind tunnel testing, and computational fluid dynamics (CFD) simulations. Design codes and standards provide guidelines and procedures for determining

wind loads based on regional wind conditions and terrain categories.

Wind loads are typically considered as a horizontal force acting on the exposed surface area of the structure. The magnitude of the wind load is determined by multiplying the wind pressure by the projected area, taking into account factors such as the height and shape of the structure.

The effects of wind load on a structure include forces on the walls, roof, and other exposed surfaces, as well as wind-induced vibrations, oscillations, and dynamic response. Proper consideration and analysis of wind loads are crucial for ensuring the structural integrity, stability, and safety of a structure against wind forces.

Structural elements and systems are designed to resist the expected wind loads, considering factors such as material strength, support systems, connections, and the overall stiffness of the structure. The design process involves selecting appropriate structural configurations, evaluating wind-induced effects, and verifying that the structure can withstand the calculated wind loads without excessive deflection or failure.

During construction, wind load considerations may influence

construction techniques, such as temporary bracing or windresistant construction practices. Regular inspections and maintenance are also important to ensure that the structure remains safe and capable of withstanding wind loads over its lifespan.

Wind load analysis is essential not only for the safety and performance of buildings and structures but also for the comfort and functionality of occupants. Properly designed structures can withstand wind loads, reducing the risk of damage, disruption, and potential hazard during extreme weather events.

In summary, wind load in civil engineering refers to the force or pressure exerted by wind on a structure or its components. It is an important consideration in structural design, and engineers analyze and design structures to withstand wind loads and ensure the safety and stability of the structure.

21. Seismic load

In civil engineering, seismic load refers to the forces and vibrations that a structure may experience during an earthquake or seismic event. Seismic loads are dynamic and can cause significant damage or failure to a structure if not properly accounted for in the design and construction process.

Seismic loads are a result of the ground movement caused by seismic waves generated by an earthquake. These waves travel through the ground and interact with structures, inducing forces and motions that can lead to structural deformations and collapse. The magnitude of seismic load depends on various factors, including the intensity and duration of the earthquake, the distance to the earthquake epicenter, the site-specific soil conditions, and the characteristics of the structure itself. Seismic loads are typically expressed in terms of peak ground acceleration, peak ground velocity, or spectral response accelerations.

Seismic loads are calculated based on seismic hazard analysis, which involves assessing the probability of earthquakes, ground motion characteristics, and the response of structures to different levels of seismic activity. Engineers use design codes, regulations, and recommended practices to determine the appropriate seismic design criteria for a specific region.

To resist seismic loads, structural engineers design structures to have sufficient strength, stiffness, and ductility. Common seismic design strategies include utilizing lateral load resisting systems, such as shear walls, moment frames, or braced frames. These systems are designed to absorb and dissipate the energy generated by seismic forces, reducing structural damage and ensuring the safety of occupants.

Seismic design also incorporates detailing requirements for reinforcing materials and connections, addressing issues such as concrete confinement, steel reinforcement spacing, and joint detailing. These details enhance the overall performance and integrity of the structure during an earthquake.

During construction, specific construction techniques and materials may be employed to enhance the seismic resistance of a structure, such as the use of seismic isolation devices or base isolators.

Regular inspections and maintenance are essential for ensuring the continued seismic resilience of structures. Periodic evaluations, retrofits, and upgrades may be required to address changes in seismic design criteria, advancements in knowledge, or modifications to the structure.

In summary, seismic load in civil engineering refers to the forces and vibrations that a structure may experience during an earthquake. Engineers analyze and design structures to withstand seismic loads by incorporating appropriate design criteria, materials, and construction techniques. Proper consideration of seismic loads is necessary to ensure the safety and resilience of structures in seismic-prone regions.

22. Soil mechanics

Soil mechanics in civil engineering refers to the study of the behavior and properties of soils and how they interact with structures and foundations. It is a branch of geotechnical engineering that focuses on understanding and analyzing the mechanical properties, behavior, and response of soil under different loading conditions.

Soil mechanics plays a crucial role in civil engineering as the majority of structures are built on or in contact with soil. Understanding the behavior of soil is essential for designing safe and stable foundations, embankments, retaining walls, tunnels, and other infrastructure projects.

The study of soil mechanics involves various aspects, including soil classification, soil composition, soil properties, soil behavior, and the effects of soil on structures and foundations. It encompasses both laboratory testing and field investigations to gather data on the physical and mechanical properties of soils.

The mechanical properties of soils studied in soil mechanics include:

1. Soil composition and grain size distribution: This involves identifying and classifying soils based on their particle size distribution and mineralogical composition. Different soil types,

such as sands, silts, or clays, exhibit different mechanical and engineering properties.

- 2. Soil compaction and consolidation: Soil compaction refers to the process of densifying soil by reducing air voids, increasing its density and strength. Consolidation refers to the gradual settlement and compression of soil under a continuous load or stress.
- 3. Shear strength: Soil shear strength determines its ability to resist deformation or sliding along internal planes. Shear strength is critical in slope stability analysis and designing retaining walls or foundations.
- 4. Permeability and seepage: Permeability refers to the ability of soil to transmit fluids, such as water. Understanding permeability and seepage helps in designing drainage systems and predicting the behavior of soil-water interactions.

Understanding soil mechanics allows engineers to analyze the stability and settlement of foundations, evaluate earth pressures on retaining walls, assess slope stability, and estimate the bearing capacity of soil to support structures.

By conducting field and laboratory tests, engineers can gather data on soil properties and behavior and use this information to make informed design decisions. This includes selecting appropriate construction techniques, foundation types, and soil improvement approaches to ensure the stability and safety of civil engineering projects.

In summary, soil mechanics in civil engineering is the study of the behavior and properties of soils and their interaction with structures. It involves analyzing soil composition, compaction, shear strength, permeability, and other properties to design safe and stable foundations and structures. Soil mechanics forms a vital component of geotechnical engineering to ensure the success and longevity of civil engineering projects.

23. Subsoil

In civil engineering, subsoil refers to the layer of soil that lies beneath the topsoil or surface layer of soil. It extends below the ground surface and typically consists of different types of soil, rock, or other natural deposits.

The subsoil is an important consideration in civil engineering projects, particularly those involving foundations, excavations, and earthworks. It plays a critical role in determining the stability, load-bearing capacity, and behavior of a structure.

Civil engineers and geotechnical specialists investigate the subsoil conditions to assess the properties and characteristics of the soil or rock layers. This investigation involves soil sampling, in-situ testing, and laboratory analysis to determine parameters such as soil type, compaction, permeability, shear strength, and settlement characteristics.

The subsoil properties can vary significantly from site to site and can even differ within the same project area. Some common subsoil types include clay, silt, sand, gravel, or rock formations. The subsoil composition and characteristics influence the design and construction practices employed to ensure proper support, stability, and safety of structures.

When planning a civil engineering project, the subsoil investigation is conducted to gather information about the subsoil layers, groundwater conditions, and any potential geotechnical risks or challenges. This allows engineers to make informed decisions regarding the foundation design, excavation requirements, and any soil improvement techniques that may be needed.

Proper analysis of the subsoil conditions is crucial for selecting the appropriate foundation type. Different foundation types, such as shallow foundations (footings) or deep foundations (piles or piers),

may be required based on the subsoil characteristics and the loads the structure will experience.

Furthermore, the subsoil conditions are considered when analyzing the feasibility of earthwork projects, such as excavation, embankments, or slope stability. Understanding the subsoil properties helps in determining the appropriate excavation methods, slope angles, and stabilization techniques.

Monitoring and assessing the subsoil conditions during construction and over the lifespan of a structure are important to ensure its long-term stability and performance. Any changes or developments in the subsoil, such as settlement or groundwater fluctuations, need to be properly addressed and managed.

In summary, subsoil in civil engineering refers to the layer of soil or rock that lies beneath the topsoil. Understanding the properties and characteristics of the subsoil is crucial for assessing stability, load-bearing capacity, and behavior of the subgrade, and for designing safe and stable structures and foundations. Accurate subsoil investigation and analysis help engineers make informed decisions and implement appropriate construction techniques and soil improvement measures.

24. Settlement

In civil engineering, settlement refers to the downward movement